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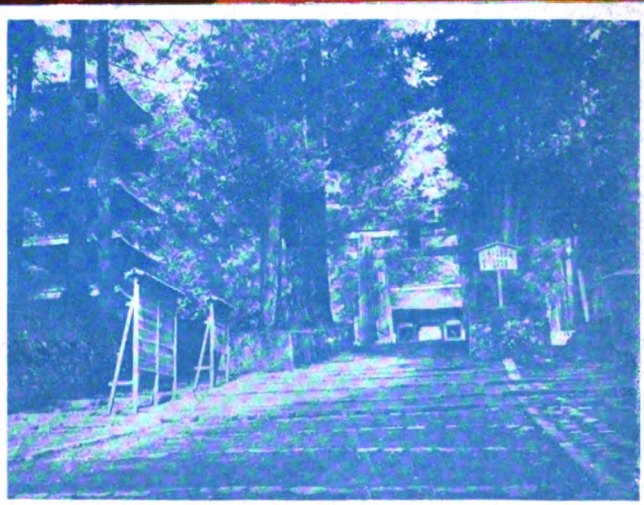

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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Japan's Royal Guests J. R. H. the Crown Prince and Princess of Sweden, at Nikko.

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Japan's old friend – Dr. Starr of Chicago on his latest visit to this country. He is seen in the picture starting on a journey on foot and rikisha over the Nakasendo (Central) highway of Japan.

A bit of action in one of the Hawaii-Keio baseball games recently played in Tokyo.

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The noted entomologist, Mr. Yasushi Nawa, whose death occurred recently.

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Viscount Eiichi Shibusawa

Governor Otohiko Ichiki of the Bank of Japan

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

VOL. XVII OCTOBER, 1926 No. I

Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress

THE Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress will be held in Tokyo for two weeks commencing October 30 and ending November 11, 1926, under the auspices of the National Research Council of Japan and through the courtesy of the Imperial Japanese Government.

According to the second announcement of the congress made in July, 1926, its Patron will be H.I.H. Prince Kan-in, its Honorary President the Prime Minister of Japan, its Honorary Vice-Presidents the American, British, French and Russian Ambassadors, and the Chilian, Chinese, Mexican, Netherlands, Peruvian, Portuguese and Siamese Ministers, the Presidents of the First and Second Pan-Pacific Science Congresses, the Minister of State for Foreign Affairs, the Minister of State for Education, the President of the House of Peers, the President of the House of Representatives, the President of the Imperial Academy, the Past President of the National Research Council, the Presidents of the Tokyo, Kyoto, Tohoku, Kyushu and Hokkaido Imperial Universities and Waseda and Keio Universities, and the Mayor of Tokyo.

Its executive Committee consists of the President, Dr. J. Sakurai, Emeritus Professor of Chemistry of Tokyo Imperial University and Privy Councillor, the Vice-President, Dr. A. Tanakadate, Emeritus Professor of Physics of Tokyo Imperial University and Member of the House of Peers; two General Secretaries, Dr. N. Yamasaki, Professor of Geography of Tokyo Imperial University and Dr. K. Matsubara, Professor of Chemistry of Tokyo Imperial University; four Divisional Secretaries, Dr. A. Imamura, Professor of Seismology of Tokyo Imperial University and Dr. T. Kato, Professor of Geology of Tokyo Imperial University (for the Division of Physical Sciences) and Dr. K. Miura, Emeritus Professor of medicine of Tokyo Imperial University, and Dr. K. Shinata, Professor of Botany of Tokyo Imperial University (for the Division of Biological Sciences).

There are Sub-Committees, of which the Chairmen are Dr. Baron C. Shiba, Professor of Marine Engineering of Tokyo Imperial University and Member of the House of Peers, Dr. K. Kishinouye, Professor of Fishery of Tokyo Imperial University, Dr. S. Shinjo, Professor of Cosmical Physics of Kyoto Imperial University, Dr. T. Iki, Professor of Petroleum Mining of the Tokyo Imperial University and Dr. H. Ando, Director of the Imperial Agricultural Experiment Station.

The General Treasurer is Mr. Kiku-

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Origin and Organization

The [illegible] of the Third Latin [illegible] Congress like those of the [illegible] Congress which met in 1929 and the Second Congress held in [illegible] was in no special way the study of [illegible] but rather a meeting of [illegible] and teachers [illegible]

[illegible] action of the Congress [illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[

sawa, Secretary of the Department of Education.

Objects and Organisation

The main objects of the Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress, like those of the First Congress held in Honolulu in 1920 and of the Second Congress held in Australia in 1923, are (1) to initiate and promote co-operation in the study of scientific problems relating to the Pacific region, more particularly those affecting the prosperity and well-being of Pacific peoples, and (2) to promote a feeling of brotherhood and strengthen the bonds of peace among Pacific Peoples.

In consideration of the great importance of these Congresses, both from national and international standpoints, the Imperial Government, upon the recommendation of the National Research Council, appropriated funds for defraying the expenses of holding the Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress in Japan in 1926, and the Japanese Delegates who attended the Second Pan-Pacific Science Congress were authorised by the Imperial Government to invite the Third Congress to meet in Japan. This invitation was extended to the Second Pan-Pacific Science Congress by Professor J. Sakurai at the last General Meeting of the Congress held in Sydney on September 3,1923, and, on the motion of Colonel Sir Gerald Lenox-Conyngham, seconded by Dr. T. Wayland Vaughan, the invitation was unanimously accepted.

Futher, on the motion of Dr. T. Wayland Vaughan, it was resolved at the same General Meeting:—

"That the National Research Council or equivalent organisation of the country in which the next Pan-Pacific Science Congress is to be held be invited to appoint the President and other executive officers of the Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress and that all the executive duties in connection with that Congress be entrusted to it."

On returning from Australia, those who formed the Japanese delegation learnt with much relief that, in spite of the national calamity that had befallen their country on September 1,1923, there was no occasion for cancelling the invitation already extended to and accepted by the Second Pan-Pacific Science Congress or even of materially modifying the hospitality and other arrangements originally planned. The National Research Council then proceeded to appoint a small Organising Committee to form the nucleus of a larger committee to be subsequently appointed, and this small committee met for the first time on March 1,1924, to consider and prepare a draft scheme of organisation.

The larger Organising Committee, which was appointed in accordance with resolutions passed at the Annual General Meeting of the National Research Council held on April 19, 1924, met on several occasions to discuss in detail the scheme of organisation, and then resolved itself into a number of sub-committees, viz., those on Scientific Programs, Excursions, General Program, Publication and Hospitality, besides one on Draft Constitution and By-Laws of the proposed permanent organisation. It was resolved at the same General Meeting that the President and Vice-President of the National Research Council be appointed the President and Vice-President, respectively, of the Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress, and that

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the President be asked to appoint General Secretaries and other Executive Officers of the Congress.

The President, the Vice-President, the General Secretaries, the Divisional Secretaries, and the General Treasurer of the Third Congress, together with the Chairmen of the above mentioned Sub-committees, constitute the Executive Committee, in which the responsibility for the conduct of the Third Congress is vested.

A question which presented itself persistently to the organisers of the Third Congress was how to realise solidarity of feeling and action, so that the objects of the Congress might be better promoted; and as a means of attaining the desired end, they decided to provide for Divisional Meetings of a much wider scope than Sectional Meetings. For this purpose, different branches of science will be grouped together to form two broad divisions, viz., those of physical and biological sciences, instead of, as hitherto, providing a section for almost every branch or sub-branch of science, and Divisional Meetings will largely take the place of Sectional Meetings. Divisional Meetings and Joint Divisional Meetings will afford opportunities for those engaged in the study of different but allied branches of science to come into frequent contact with one another in discussions upon subjects of more or less common interest, instead of their being separated, for the greater part, into a large number of comparatively small Sectional Meetings.

The provision for Divisional Meetings also gives a satisfactory solution to the question discussed at the General Meeting of the Second Congress held in Melbourne on August 22, 1923, namely, whether the Congress should, in future, include all branches of physical and biological sciences, each forming a separate section. The voting for and against was practically equal, and the Governing Body of the Third Congress was asked to give the matter its serious consideration. The most weighty objection to including all branches of science was that a further increase in the number of sections already too numerous would result, and the ground for this objection is removed by grouping together the various branches of science in two broad divisions. All branches of physical and biological sciences form proper subjects for discussion at the Congress, provided that the subject treated bears upon some Pacific problem.

As at previous Congresses, Sectional Meetings will be held at the Third Congress, but more or less in a secondary way, that is to say, these meetings will be held in order to deal with those contributions which either, from their scope, render their discussion at a Sectional Meeting more suitable or, for want of time, cannot be discussed at one of the Divisional Meetings.

Scientific Programs

Side by side with the provision for Divisional Meetings, scientific programs will, for the most part, be arranged in the form of symposia upon selected subjects. These subjects, with the exception of the first two selected for discussion at Joint Divisional Meetings, will ultimately be so arranged that some will be discussed at Physical Divisional Meetings, others at Bioligical Divisional Meetings, and still others at Sectional Meetings. The final

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form which scientific programs will take depends largely upon what contributions will actually be made.

The following are subjects selected for discussion at joint divisional meetings.—

1. Symposium on certain definite plans for international cooperation in the study of the more important scientific problems of the Pacific.
2. Review of the present state of knowledge of the physical and biological oceanography of the Pacific: tides and currents, temperature, salinity, hydrogen-ion concentration, abundance of plankton, duration of the swimming larval stages of organisms that are sedentary in the adult stage, etc.

The following are subjects selected for discussion at either divisional or sectional meetings.—

(Physical Sciences)

3. Astronomical observations especially connected with the Pacific region.
4. Solar activity in relation to geophysical problems of the Pacific region.
5. Distribution of terrestrial magnetism in the Pacific region.
6. Meteorological study of the Pacific region; general circulation of the atmosphere, cyclones, and correlation of meteorological elements.
7. Meteorological and time service by radio-transmission in the Pacific region, and causes which give rise to its disturbances.
8. Form of the geoid in the Pacific region as deduced from geodetic observations, measurements of gravity or plumb-line deviation.
9. Suitable map projections for maps on different scales for the countries bordering on the Pacific.
10. Difference of the attenuation of radio waves along and across the meridian of the earth in the Pacific region.
11. Crustal movements and geotectonies in the Pacific region; earth quakes, crust tides, variation of mean sea-level, etc.
12. Report on the network of earthquake observations in the countries of the Pacific.
13. Tranmission of earthquake waves across the Pacific.
14. Earthquake proof constructions.
15. Study of volcanoes in the Pacific region in their various aspects.
16. Thermal springs in the Pacific region.
17. Correlation of the Mesozoic formations of the Pacific region.
18. Boundaries of the Pliocene and Pleistocene deposits in the Pacific region.
19. History of the strandline of the Pacific during Pleistocene and Post-pleistocene time.
20. Metallogenetic epochs of the Pacific region, and their bearing upon its structural unity.
21. Stratigraphy of the coal-bearing formations in the Pacific region.
22. Stratigraphy of the oil-bearing formations in the Pacific region.
23. Mineral resources of the Pacific region: coal, petroleum, sulphur, phosphate of lime, and useful metals.
24. Distribution of rare elements in the Pacific Region.
25. The present and future trade connections among the countries bordering on the Pacific from an economic-geographical point of view.

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(Biological Science)

26. Inter-relationship of the floras of Pacific regions as indicated by the distribution of certain groups of land and marine plants.
27. Flora and fauna of the islands of the Pacific, with special reference to the problems of endemism and migration.
28. Rational methods for the protection of useful aquatic animals and plants of the Pacific.
29. Genetics in relation to the improvement of important crops, more particularly rice, and of live stock.
30. Information regarding the insect fauna of the Pacific region, especially those affecting economic plants and animals.
31. Distribution of bonitos and tunnis in the Pacific and their ecological studies.
32. Distribution and life-history of fresh water eels in the Pacific region.
33. International cooperation in the investigations of pelagic fish eggs and larvae.
34. Preservation of natural monuments in the Pacific region.
35. Different plant successions as observed in various regions of the Pacific.
36. Ecology of the epiphytic flora in the Pacific region.
37. Origin and development of vegetation on the newer and older volcanic deposits in the Pacific region.
38. Distribution of volcanic ashes in the Pacific region and their physical and chemical properties, with special reference to their agricultural value.
39. Rational methods of storing cereals.
40. Use of green manures in various Pacific regions.
41. Methods of soil classification and soil surveying.
42. Citrus culture in the Pacific region.
43. Scientific bases for plant quarantine in the countries of the Pacific.
44. Control and treatment of the infections and parasitic diseases of live stock.
45. Antiquity of man in the Pacific region.
46. Anthropometry of the races of the Pacific region.
47. The Ainu people: their origin and affinities with other peoples.
48. The place of the Papuans in the anthropological system.
49. The pygmy question, more especially relating to New Guinea and the Philippines.
50. Gultural developments in the East Indies and the theories of the "Kulrur - historische" and the "Manchester" schools of social anthropology, regarding the evolution of culture in the Pacific.
51. Food, clothing and dwelling houses in relation to climate in the different regions of the Pacific.
52. Distribution, prevention and cure of particular diseases among native races of the Pacific region.
53. *Ascaris*, *Anchylostoma* (*Necator*) and *Schistosoma*: distribution, life-history, clinical aspects, prevention and treatment.

Papers and Discussion

The authors of contributions to the Congress have been requested to give their attention to the following points:—

1. Subjects for discussion include all

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branches of physical and biological sciences, but every contribution must bear upon some scientific problem relating to the Pacific region.

2. An abstract should be prepared for each paper, and both paper and abstract should be typewritten in English. Papers written in other languages may be accepted at the discretion of the President, if accompanied by abstracts in English.
3. The abstracts were to be in the hands of the General Secretaries not later than August 31, 1926, and, if possible, papers also were to be sent in at an equally early date. This arrangement was necessary in order that the final programs may be fixed at an early date and also that the papers or their abstracts may be printed in advance, so that these may be distributed prior to the meeting at which they are to be read.
4. It is proposed to hold two Joint Divisional Meetings; five or more but not more than eight Divisional Meetings each, for Division A and Division B; and one or more but not more than four Sectional Meetings for each of the Sections, the time allotted to any one of these meetings being two and a half hours. The leader of a discussion will be asked to limit his time to something like 20-30 minutes and other contributors to 10-15 minutes or, possibly, even less.
5. Five minutes would be the time-limit in the case of those participating in discussions following the reading of a paper or presentation of its substance. In order that the final Report and Proceedings may be as complete as possible, participants in such dissussions will be requested to send in, during the following day, the substance of their remarks in writing in English to one of the Secretaries, with their names, titles and addresses in full.
6. English will be the usual language at all meetings of the Congress. Those who wish to speak in other languages are requested to send in the substance of their speeches in English to one of the Secretaries. If sent in before noon on the previous day, copies of the English version will be distributed prior to the meeting at which such a speech is to be made.

Excursions.

Excursions will be arranged before, during and after the congress for the overseas delegates and their families.

The program before the session includes excursions to Hokkaido, Nikko and Hakone. The Hokkaido excursionists will leave Tokyo on October 25 and come back on October 30 in the meantime of which visits will be made to Ainu villages and to cretaceous and tertiary deposits. Those to Nikko or Hakone will leave Tokyo on October 26 and come back on October 29. During the session, shorter excursions will be made to the Ashio Copper Mine, the Hitachi Copper Mine, Matsushima, the lake districts around Mt. Fuji, Kamakura and Enoshima, Kioroshi (inspecting Policene deposits), Kasori (visiting the Kasori shell mound), Chichibu (visiting Nagatoro and examining the crystalline schist formation), Yoshimi (visiting Hyakuana,

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or "One Hundred Caves") and Misaki, where the Marine Biological Station of the Tokyo Imperial University is situated.

For excursions after the session, visits to Kyoto, Osaka and Kobe are arranged from November 11 to 15, and to Miyajima and Kyushu or Shikoku from November 16 to 19, A section visiting Miyajima, Beppu and Unzen, B section Miyajima, Besshi Mine and Yashima, C section Miyajima, Yawata Iron and Steel Works and Miike Colliery, D section Miyajima, Aso Volcano and Unzen and E section Beppu, Aoshima and Sakurajima Volcano.

The overseas delegates and their families, on their way to Japan and back will be allowed a reduction of 15 per cent. on their tickets on the N.Y.K. and the O.S.K. lines. Moreover, free tickets will be issued to them by the Imperial Government Railways for their travels in the interior of Japan, by way of extending hospitality to them as guests of the Congress.

Overseas scientists attending the Congress also will enjoy the same hospitality and other privileges as the delegates.

Permanent Organisation.

The following Resolutions were adopted by the Second Pan-Pacific Science Congress at the last General Meeting held in Sydney on September 3, 1923:

1. "That this Congress recommends the establishment of a permanent organisation of the scientific institutions and individuals engaged in research on the scientific problems of the Pacific region;
2. "That the President of the Third Pan-Pacific Science Congress request the National Research Council or similar institution or agency of each of the following countries, viz: Australia, Canada, Chili, France, Great Britain, Japan, Netherlands, New Zealand, the Philippine Islands and the United States of America, to appoint a member of an Organisation Committee, the chairman of the Committee to be resident of the country in which the Congress will be held, and that the Committee be empowered to add to its membership representatives from other Pacific countries;
3. "That the Organisation Committee be requested to prepare a preliminary draft of the constitution and methods of procedure of the organisation and to report its recommendations to the next Congress."

The international Organisation Committee formed according to Resolution 2 is constituted as follows, and the draft Constitution and By-Laws prepared by this Committee will be submitted at the General Meeting of the Third Congress:

International Organisation Committee

United States of America	Dr. T. Wayland Vaughan
Australia	Sir David Orme Masson
Canada	Dr. R. W. Brock
France	Prof. A. Lacroix
Great Britain	Sir Gerald Lenox-Conyngham
Hawaii	Dr. H. E. Gregory
Japan	Dr. Joji Sakurai
The Netherlands	Dr. F. A. F. C. Went
The Netherlands East Indies	Dr. W. M. Docters van Leeuwen
New Zealand	Dr. P. Marshall
Philippine Islands	Dr. W. H. Brown

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Financial Giants of Japan

Viscount Eiichi Shibusawa

VISCOUNT Shibusawa is the foremost figure in the financial circles of Japan, and is of world-wide fame as "Shibusawa of Japan." It is no exaggeration to say that since the Meiji Restoration the commercial and industrial world of Japan has been guided and encouraged by him until it has realised its present day prosperity and development. The viscount has a paramount influence on the business world of the country and is deeply trusted by all interested in it. Any bank or business firm in which Viscount Shibusawa is concerned, consequently, never fails and in fact has brilliant success. Viscount Shibusawa is venerated in all classes of society as a national treasure, as it were.

The viscount was born in a hamlet in Saitama Prefecture in February, the 11th year of Tempo (1840). His father's name was Ichiroemon, and his family generation after generation had been engaged in farming. So Viscount Shibusawa in childhood went out to the field and helped his father to till the farm. Besides cereals his family cultivated indigo-plants. When he was twelve or thirteen years old he would go to town, with the plants on his shoulders, and peddle them. Availing himself of leisure hours he learned fencing, and read books. The peasant boy was very clever, and far-sighted in grasping any chance, while being also bold. When fifteen or sixteen years of age, when the feudal lord commanded all the people in his fief to provide a large amount of funds the brave boy proceeded to the magistrate's office alone, and directly appealed to the Magistrate to the effect that the lord's command was illegal and arbitrary, and succeeded in rescuing his family from paying the large amount requisitioned by the clan government. The people wondered at his ability and boldness and agreed he would be a great man in future.

At that time Tokyo was in chaos, owing to the Restoration movement everyed where. Young Shibusawa was no longer able to put up with his irksome life in the country and made up his mind to go to the capital. He gave up his farming and went to Yedo, now Tokyo. He was soon recognised by the Prince of Hitotsubashi as a promising youth and he employed him. Shibusawa displayed his ability in adjusting the prince's finances revising the taxation system and forming agrarian troops.

In the 3rd year of Keio (1867) when the Prince of Hitotsubashi became Shogun, Shibusawa was despatched to France whence he returned home in the 1st year of Meiji (1868) after investigating the institutions of that country.

In the following year he entered the Finance Department, but resigned in the 6th year of Meiji (1873) owing to conflict of opinion with his colleagues. While in the government service he summoned leading business men in Tokyo and Osaka and persuaded them to establish exchange corporations and express companies. These were the pioneer commercial partnerships in Japan.

On being released from government

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office, he founded the First National Bank, the forerunner of the present Dai-Ichi Ginko, and made himself its president, in which capacity he exerted himself. He became interested in commercial and industrial companies and contributed considerably to the development of Japan's economics. He paid particular attention to commercial education, and founded the usiness Method School, the forerunner of the present Tokyo Commercial University.

Viscount Shibusawa was the founder of the Chamber of Commerce as well as the Bankers' Club, through which he endeavoured to develop commerce and industry, and promote the social status of merchants and bankers by increasing confidence in them. He was nominated by His Majesty as a member of the House of Peers, which post, however, he soon resigned, deciding to devote himself solely to the growth of industry. In recognition of such meritorious services he was later created a peer with the title of baron.

He greatly exerted himself in public enterprises and philanthropic works of various kinds, and became Director of the Tokyo Asylum. In the 42nd year of Meiji (1909) he went to the United States at the head of a business men's party, and during his sojourn there for about half a year, despite his advanced age, he did his utmost for the cause of Japan-American friendship and the growth of trade between the two nations, as is now widely known by both peoples. In this manner Viscount Shibusawa has become "Shibusawa of Japan."

The concerns in which he is directly and indirectly interested reach several score and heal most incessantly toiled for increasing the prosperity of these companies.

In the 5th year of Taisho (1916) Viscount Shibusawa withdrew from the presidency of the Dai-Ichi Ginko and all other important offices in many corporations, taking advantage of his having reached the age of seventy-seven, and decided to put all his energy exclusively in philanthropic, public interest and educational works.

He has rendered valuable services towards the betterment of the friendly relationship between Japan and America and China. In this respect he is regarded upon as a diplomat representing the Japanese people. Nobody but Viscount Shibusawa is qualified to hold such a position in Japan. No one can equal him in such endeavors.

It is not only his ability but his personality that has made Viscount Shibusawa as great as he is; the viscount is a man of character unparalleled in modern Japan. This noble, gracious and upright personality has enabled him to win the hearts of people everywhere. This has brought him such brilliant success in life. Consequently, wherever he may go, in the official field, in political circles, in the educational world, in religious directions and others, not to speak of commercial and industrial circles, he is welcomed, loved and respected.

Now at his an advanced age of over eighty years he is hale and hearty, and endeavours to accord economic activities with moral doctrines, compromise capital with labour and promote philianthropic and relief enterprises.

The Imperial Court deeply appreciated his disinterestedness and activity, in re-

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cognition of which it promoted his peerage rank to a viscounty a few years ago. The viscount was strongly moved by the imperial benevolence and declared he would devote his life to the betterment of the national welfare, ignoring his advanced age.

Viscount Shibusawa's moral principle is based upon the ethical doctrine of Confucius, whose celebrated work "Rongo" seems to be the viscount's golden rule. Whenever he talks about ethics and refers to morality, he never fails to quote the Confucian scripture. "Rongo" is the canon of Confucianism, which the veteran business magnate lives up to, and teaches to the nation as a whole by pen and mouth. Nowadays the nation has been inclined to be more and more frivolous and imprudent, to the deep regret of thoughtful people. Viscount Shibusawa's teaching based on the principles of "Rongo" must be making more effective contribution to the amelioration of the national moral education than ethical and moral preachings from the pulpit by commonplace educationists and religionists. Viscount Shibusawa's pen-name is Seien, and he is well versed in Chinese poems, while having good hand writing.

Governor Otohiko Ichiki of the Bank of Japan

Mr. Otohiko Ichiki is the present Governor of the Bank of Japan, the first on the list of the special banking institutions in Japan, with the largest amount of capital throughout the country: the Japanese Government's treasury. Mr. Ichiki, Governor of the institution, is thus highly favored among the business men of the country.

Mr. Ichiki is the third son of Heita Ichiki, a *samurai* of Kagoshima Prefecture. He was born in the 5th year of Meiji (1872). He graduated from the Faculty of Law in the Tokyo Imperial University in which he selected the political science course. Upon graduation he passed the Higher Civil Service Examination and immediately entered the government service.

He was successively appointed excise officer, commissioner of the Extraordinary Land Readjustment Bureau of Okinawa Prefecture, Director of the Naha Revenue Administration Bureau, Customs Commissioner and Secretary to the Finance Department in addition, Secretary to the Monopoly Bureau, Councillor to the Finance Ministry, Director of the Accounts Bureau and Vice-Minister of Finance.

In the 7th year of Taisho (1918) he was nominated by His Majesty as a member of the House of Peers; on the formation of the Takahashi Cabinet in the 11th year of (1922) he was given the portfolio of Finance and in the following year (1923) on the establishment of the Yamamoto Ministry, he relieved Mr. Junnosuke Inouye, then Governor of the Bank of Japan, while Mr. Inouye became Minister of Finance in his place.

One might think that Mr. Ichiki is a lucky person who has succeeded in ascending to the highest step of a ladder from the bottom without difficulty, but, on the contrary he has experienced all sorts of adversities since his boyhood. In fact he is, like Mr. Wakatsuki, present Premier, one of the representative self-made men of this country. He is of a

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wealthy family in Kagoshima, engaged in teaching playing the small hand-drum, in the Shimazu Clan. When Mr. Ichiki was born the abolition of clans and the creation of prefectures had already been put into effect, but his family was well-to-do. However, on the outbreak of the Saigo Rebellion in the 11th year of Meiji (1878) his house was destroyed by fire during the battle, and the residence and store house were reduced to ashes, together with all the other property. As a result his family began to meet misfortune and at length was driven to such a wretched condition that he was hardly able to earn his livelihood.

Mr. Ichiki who was such a bright boy that he was the admiration of the village was yearning to come to the capital and pursue his studies in order to get on in the world, but in vain, as there was no way for him to get the means of attending school. However, when he was eighteen years old he came to Tokyo with great ambition, and abruptly called on the late Viscount Inajiro Tajiri, one of the elders of his native province, to whom he explained the object of his coming to the capital and humbly asked to be engaged as door-keeper. If Viscount Tajiri had been an ordinary man he might have refused to see such a poor-looking fellow in shabby clothes, calling on him without any introduction. But Viscount Tajiri was a great sympathiser with young students, and the young man was from his own place. Viscount Tajiri immediately accepted young Ichiki's request, and took him in as door-keeper. This was the first step from which Mr. Ichiki ascended the ladder of fame.

Ichiki found a safe shelter in his patron's home, and served him with faithfulness and honesty. Under Viscount Tajiri's patronage he was able to enter the First High School in Tokyo. He displayed excellent scholarship. The old viscount made him a favourite.

Ichiki continued his studies, entering the University, from which he graduated with honour. Having had such a past career, Mr. Ichiki is very serious-minded and stern in behavior. He has a firm idea of personal responsibility. For younger men he never grudges any kind of trouble, giving them help materially and wise counsel.

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The Insurance Business

IN Japan, like other major countries, the insurance business has attained remarkable development, and especially life insurance business stands third in the world, being preceded by England and America.

The insurance business was introduced here early in the Meiji era at the same time as the introduction of the banking hand other western economic system. The first insurance company coming into existence in Japan was the Tokyo Marine Insurance Co., which was established in August, 1879 as a semi-offical enterprise. This was followed by the formation of a life insurance association, the predecessor of the Kyosai Life Insurance Co., in January, 1880, and in the year following, the Meiji Life Insurance Co. was organized.

The fire insurance business was started several years later than the two other lines, in July, 1887, when the Tokyo Fire Insurance Co. was established. Transport insurance was inaugurated in 1896 by the establishment of the Hokuriku Transport Insurance Co. and conscription insurance was started by the First Conscription Insurance Co. in 1898.

Subsequently, such kinds of insurance business as fidelity, engine and boiler, accident, burglary and automobile insurance were commenced accessorily by marine and fire insurance companies. In the life insurance line, the First Mutual Life Insurance Co. was established under the mutual system in 1902.

Insurance companies increased steadily in number for a subsequent period as the national wealth augmented and the national civilization progressed, until the insurance business attained the present marked development.

In the meantime, the business experienced vicissitudes. In 1893 and 1894, business enterprises rose suddenly as a result of the extreme slackness of mony. Consequently, not a few companies were established in the insurance line.

Later, however, these new establishments failed in no small part, and they were merged or ruined. This was because of lack of proper knowledge or experience in the business by the management.

Moreover, there were many persons doing business of a dubious nature, resembling insurance, and this retarded the spreading of a healthy insurance idea among the people. The authorities saw the necessity of supervising the business, and put in force the Insurance Law on July 1, 1900, which made a clean sweep of the existing badly organized firms.

From that time on, the laws were more and more improved and the insurance business was put under stricter and stricter supervision.

After the Japan-Russia War, many insurance companies were established again as a result of the postbellum economic activity. This time, these companies were projected on sound principles and foundation.

The World War greatly enriched the nation, which together with the spreading of the insurance idea among the people

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made for the greater prosperity of the insurance business.

At present, life insurance companies number 44 and marine, fire and other accident insurance companies 51. Before the insurance business was so strongly established as at present, it had strong competition from foreign insurances offices doing business in Japan. These offices numbered 60 or 70 in 1900, when the Imperial ordinance was issued controlling foreign insurance offices in Japan. They were obliged by the law to deposit an amount of money with the Government. This forced nearly half of them to give up business in Japan. At present, there are only 4 life insurance offices and 32 fire insurance offices, operated by foreigners.

There were no life insurance offices doing a legitimate business except the Meiji Life Insurance Co. in the period from 1881 to 1887, at the end of which the outstanding insurance stood only at about 2,000,000 yen. Later, the Imperial Life Insurance Co. and the Japan Life Insurance Co. were established in 1888 and 1889 respectively. In the subsequent eight years, many other companies came into being. At the end of 1897, the outstanding insurance amounted to 120,000,000 yen, but 10 years later, at the end of 1907, the amount was trebled to 350,000,000 yen. It became two times larger at the end of 1912, 790,000,000 yen. Since then, the amount was doubled every 4-7 years and stood at 3,190,000,000 yen at the end of 1922. The latest returns, at the end of February, 1926 give the amount as 4,828,000,000 yen. How life insurance increased is shown in the following table:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Year	New Policies Issued	Insurance Outstanding at End of Year	Premium Receipts	Insurance Paid	Compensation Reserve Funds
1881	485	485	10	0	7
1887	500	1,985	66	14	150
1897	43,498	122,313	3,936	984	5,037
1907	109,324	350,188	13,170	3,603	36,638
1912	227,072	789,381	30,432	7,752	85,195
1918	421,278	1,583,229	67,768	19,335	223,339
1922	699,987	3,192,807	178,601	37,447	458,182
1924	957,825	4,002,340	182,715	50,618	528,442

Conscription insurance multiplied more than life insurance. At the end of 1912, it amounted to 30,000,000 yen, 69,000,000 yen in 1918, 140,000,000 yen in 1920, 290,000,000 yen in 1924 and 370,000,000 yen at the end of February, 1926, the last mentioned of which was thirteen times as much as the figure in 1912.

Life and conscription insurance being for long terms, there is an immense amount of funds held by the insurance companies, which hold a great potential power in the financial world by investing these funds in economic enterprises. The following table denotes how these funds are invested: —

(In Thousands of Yen)

Year	Deposits		Loans		Negotiable Securities		Real Estate.	
	Amount	Proportion to Total Per Cent	Amount	Proportion to Total Per Cent	Amount	Proportion to Total Per Cent	Amount	Proportion to Total Per Cent
1912	20,000	21	36,000	37	35,000	36	5,000	6
1918	93,000	30	44,000	16	134,000	49	11,000	4
1924	167,000	23	196,000	27	329,000	45	29,000	5

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From the above table, it may be noted that the life and conscription insurance funds invested in loans and negotiable securities in 1924 show a decrease and an increase respectively in proportion to the total, as compared with those in 1912, while there were very few changes in deposits and real estate.

The power wielded by these insurance companies in the financial world is still too small to be compared with that of the banks. They may be expected, however, to exercise a much greater power in future with the accelerated growth of their funds in proportion to the development of their business.

The life insurance business in Japan and its invested funds are accelerating quickly. How much profit is being made? In 1924, the life insurance companies lost on insurance contracts and gained on investments. May this be taken as showing a healthy condition of Japan's life insurance business?

The post insurance business created by the Government in 1916 also has been very successful, there being policies issued to the value of over 1,000,000,000 yen.

In the accident insurance line, the Tokyo Marine Insurance Co. was the first to establish it. This company monopolized the marine insurance business of Japan for over 10 years from 1879 to 1893, and took new insurance of 81,-000,000 yen in 1892. Then, there were the Imperial Marine Insurance Co. and the Japan Marine and Land Insurance Co., established by 1896. These three concerns took insurance of 740,000,000 yen in 1897. Subsequently, a number of new offices came into existence. In 1907, insurance was taken to the value of 1,400,000,000 yen, double the figure existing a decade before and the amount was increased to 2,300,000,000 yen in 1915. Until this time, the Japanese offices were liable to be overwhelmed by foreign insurance offices doing business in Japan. During the World War, the marine transport trade prospered. Consequently, the marine insurance business increased so remarkably that in 1916, new insurance taken reached 3,700,000,-000 yen and in 1919, amounted to 8,500,000,000 yen. Upon the armistice, the business decreased. In 1921, the amount was only 5,200,000,000 yen, although it reached 6,000,000,000 yen in 1924. At present, the business is in a stagnant condition.

In fire insurance the first company was founded in 1888 under the name of the Tokyo Fire Insurance Co., and later, in the period from 1893 1902, many companies were established indiscriminately. These concerns sustained heavy losses from big conflagrations breaking out in Hakodate and Osaka in 1907 and 1909 respectively. Subsequently, the Fire Insurance Association and the Fire Insurance Union were organized, and were joined under the name of the Dai Nippon Fire Insurance Federation. At the same time, a curtailment policy was adopted by the insurers. This reaped fruitful results, when the economic world developed on account of the World War. Consequently, the new insurance taken in this line in 1916 reached 3,100,000,000 yen as against 1,500,000,000 yen in 1912. The figures continued to leap in subsequent years, standing at 5,700,000,000 yen in 1918, and at 15,000,000,000 yen in 1924. Immense losses of property in

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the great earthquake in 1923 were met by the fire insurers by the payment of 10 per cent. partly with official aid.

The transport and other insurance businesses made healthy progress, too.

The following shows returns of marine, fire and transport insurance:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Year	New Contracts	Premium Receipts	Contracts Outstanding at End of Year	Compensation Reserve Funds at End of Year	Insurance Paid
Marine Insurance:—					
1912	1,252,000	5,000	72,000	8,000	2,000
1915	2,397,000	9,000	153,000	14,000	3,000
1916	3,753,000	17,000	265,000	19,000	6,000
1919	8,557,000	34,000	724,000	55,000	14,000
1921	5,298,000	23,000	529,000	50,000	19,000
1924	5,952,000	11,000	535	49,000	17,000
Fire Insurance:—					
1912	1,493,000	6,000	1,130,000	8,000	2,000
1916	3,108,000	7,000	1,808,000	11,000	2,000
1918	5,760,000	17,000	3,017,000	20,000	4,000
1924	15,717,000	64,000	11,660,000	62,000	23,000
Transport Insurance:—					
1912	325,000	138	5,914	123	28
1918	1,096,000	580	25,688	510	127
1924	2,676,000	1,147	143,266	1,091	653

The funds of these insurance companies increased naturally with the steady development of their business. In 1912, they amounted to 40,000,000 yen, but they augmented to 140,000,000 yen in 1918 and to 280,000,000 yen in 1924. How these funds were invested may be seen from the following table:—

(In Thousands of Yen)

Year	Deposits. Amount	Deposits. Proportion to Total Per Cent	Loans Amount	Loans Proportion to Total Per Cent	Negotiable Securities Amount	Negotiable Securities Proportion to Total Per Cent	Real Estate Amount	Real Estate Proportion to Total Per Cent
1912	12,000	30	9,000	23	17,000	42	2,000	5
1915	22,000	40	10,000	19	20,000	36	5,000	4
1918	70,000	48	15,000	10	55,000	42	5,000	4
1921	76,000	33	43,000	19	105,000	45	8,000	3
1924	95,000	34	46,000	16	127,000	46	8,000	3

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The Dye Stuff Industry

IN 1915, on the outbreak of the World War, the Dye Stuff and Chemical Production Encouragement Law was enacted in Japan to meet the necessity of national defence and industrial administration, protecting and encouraging the production of aniline salts, aniline dyes, alizarine dyes and artificial indigo.

Under this law, a Government subsidy was granted to the Nippon Senryo Seizo K. K. (the Japan Dye Stuff Manufacturing Co., Ltd.) and the Nippon Glycerine Kogyo K. K. (the Japan Glycerine Industrial Co., Ltd.), which were established. This subsidy amounted to 11,811,816 yen for the former and to 7,432,494 yen for the latter from 1916 to 1924.

In addition to this substantial aid, the Government supported the dye stuff industry by raising the import duties to 20 per cent. on artificial indigo and 35 per cent. on ordinary dyes in July, 1920.

Thanks to these efforts made officially to protect and encourage the industry, there were at the end of 1924 49 artificial dye stuff manufacturing companies established in Japan, besides the above two, with aggregate capital amounting to 80,000,000 yen (paid up) and the yearly amount of their production reaching 20,000,000 yen, including coal-tar distillates, besides dyes and intermediums.

It was claimed then that not a few of the 32 kinds of dyes, etc. produced by the above factories were not inferior in quality to the German goods. Anyhow, the production of sulphur dyes and basic violet dyes was most developed, and towards 1921, these dyes were able to compete with foreign goods in China and other places, to which they were exported to the yearly value of 1,000,000 yen since 1922.

After the World War, nearly all the Powers vetoed the importation of dyes. This turned the German manufacturers' attention mostly to the Orient, where they cultivated markets eagerly in competition with the English, American, French and Swiss manufacturers. The rivalry was keen in Japan, too, where the dye stuff industry staggered under the pressure of the contest.

The matter being considered serious in the interests of the national industry, the Government enforced a law in June, 1924, restricting the importation of German dyes by means of a license system adopted against all coal-tar dyes and chemicals, etc. from coal-tar distillates, other than those receivable from Germany under the Reparation Treaty and artificial indigo and coal-tar dyes, otherwise provided for under No. 243 of the Import Tariff.

This, however, had little effect practically in restricting the importation of dyes, as may be seen from the following table:—

Year.	From England. Kin	France. Kin	Germany. Kin	Switzerland. Kin	America. Kin	Other countries. Kin	Total Kin
1913	134,848	0	6,690,756	501,115	0	235,741	7,362,460
1914	110,114	0	4,153,031	386,752	0	201,327	4,851,224

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1915	5,199	0	1,113,174	126,541	0	184,425	1,429,339
1916	0	0	425,304	46,778	0	68,993	541,075
1917	0	0	222,234	121,637	0	296,395	640,266
1918	0	0	357,616	125,459	0	1,458,729	1,941,800
1919	93,294	46,785	36,061	342,919	1,562,395	3,759	2,094,211
1920	190,375	138,076	588,664	544,060	10,252,353	544,712	15,443,034
1921	70,733	66,531	3,011,496	131'314	685,751	298,444	4,127,269
1922	29,900	55,490	6,248,050	116,814	601,838	17,233	7,069,325
1923	32,401	46,340	6,874,793	484,938	408,408	159,092	8,049,972
1924	9,606	84,250	9,075,060	574,199	1,020,230	23,597	10,787,242

As may be seen from the above table, the importation of dye stuffs fell off in 1916 and 1917, when the total volume imported was less than 10 per cent. of the pre-war figures. Upon the termination of the war, however, the trade rapidly recovered and in 1920 it became twice as much as before the war. Ever since then, the goods came in large quantitics, and for 1924, the volume was 40 per cent. larger than 1913, or before the war. Each country supplied a larger amount than before, except England, whose share of the trade for the year was less than one-tenth of that for 1913. At the same time, the French and American shares increased considerably and the German goods rapidly regained their supreme position with 9,000,000 kin imported in 1924 as against 6,600,000 kin before the war. With such an overwhelming supply of foreign dyes, nearly all the poor Japanese works had to shut down.

The Government enacted on October 15, 1925 a new law encouraging the production of certain specified kinds of dye stuffs by general manufacturers and not by a certain named few as previously, by paying a yearly grant-in-aid of 1,000,-000-4,000,000 yen for six years. Following this, the import duties on dyes were enhanced in 1926, simultaneously with the general revision of the import tariff.

The following table denotes prices of foreign and Japanese dyes per kin since 1919:—

Year	English Yen	French Yen	German Yen	Swise Yen	American Yen	Japanese Yen
1919..	5,777	4,897	6,000	4,405	5,201	1,330
1920..	4,021	4,970	4,484	5,584	4,568	1,271
1921..	4,231	3,648	3,195	3,706	3,753	850
1922..	1,832	2,239	1,991	2,271	1.228	—
1923..	2,109	1,691	1,222	1,738	904	606
1924..	1,985	1,220	1,140	1,517	957	540

It may be seen from the above table that in 1924, imported dyes declined to less than one-fifth of what was quoted in 1919 for the American and German goods and to less than one-fourth of that for the French goods. This destroyed a considerable number of Japanese dye stuff works, though those producing high grade coal-tar dyes could continue to work with difficulty by cutting down their prices one-half to meet the foreign competition and by curtailing their production by 20-50 per cent.

Technically, the Japanese dye stuff industry made remarkable progress, and in October, 1925, when the old subsidy

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period expired, there were 40 certain important kinds of dyes made perfectly here after spending in research about 10,000,000 yen, the products being claimed not to be much inferior in quality to the foreign products and not to cost in production much higher than them. This was a fruitful result of the subsidy law.

Under this positive policy of protection taken by the Government, the dye stuff industry has made a revival. There are at present about 45 dye stuff factories with working capital of 20,000,000 yen and 500 experts, producing 80 kinds of dyes to the yearly quantity of 20,000,000 kin, valued at 10,000,000 yen. Besides, there are by-products to the value of 4,000,000 yen. The largest factory is the Osaka works of the Japan Dye Stuff Manufacturing Co., which makes principally direct dyes and partly acid dyes, basic dyes, sulphur dyes and intermediums. Next comes the Mitsui Mining Co.'s Miike Dye Stuff Manufactory, which makes chiefly aniline and black sulphur dyes and partly alizarine dyes, acid mordant dyes direct and acid dyes and intermediums. It is making tentatively artificial indigo on a large scale.

Black sulphur dyes, which are most extensively required for cotton dyeing, are most largely manufactured by the Imperial Dye Stuff Manufacturing Co., the Marukin Chemical Industrial Co., the Ozaki Dye Stuff Manufactory and the Oriental Dye Stuff Co. One-third of what is produced here is exported to China. The Yura Dye Stuff Co.'s Wakayama Works was once known as the largest in Japan, except the Japan Dye Stuff Manufacturing Co., but it suspended operations some time ago, and has not yet resumed work, through lack of funds.

Methyl violet, which has the greatest demand of basic dyes, for cotton and silk dyeing, is manufactured chiefly by the Yokoyama Gomei Kaisha, whose product is exported to the extent of one-third, the Tomoye Shokai and the Mitsuboshi Dye Stuff Co., the whole product of these two being exported.

Bismarck brown is made by the Fuji Chemical Works and a few others. As manufacturers of acid dyes for silk and woollen dyeing, there are the Taisho Shikiso Kagaku Kenkyusho, the Osaka Dye Stuff Manufactory and the Tomoye Chemical Laboratory, all of which are in Osaka, the Zo-o Chemical Laboratory and the Miyako Chemical Laboratory, both of which are in Kyoto.

For intermediums, the Sankyo K. K.'s Shinagawa Works are noted for the production of salicylic acid, the Naikoku Kagaku Kogyosho (Tokyo) for that of alphanaphtiramin and the Mitsuboshi Kagaku Kenkyusho (Kyoto) for that of dimethyl aniline. There are a few companies making exclusively lake colours and food colours.

The yearly amount of dye stuffs consumed in Japan is 7,200 or 7,300 tons, valued roughly at 25,000,000 yen. Of this amount, 6,800 tons are represented by 66 kinds, which are consumed comparatively largely, valued at 22,000,000 or 23,000,000 yen.

When all the dyes that can be made by the existing Japanese works are put together, they can cover most of the demand in Japan. Still an amount has to be necessarily imported to the value of about 10,000,000 yen, as artificial indigo, which is most important, is not yet made

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perfectly here.

Technically, however, even this indigo is said to have been nearly completely studied, and the only thing left to make the commercial production of it and other high grade dyes, which are not yet made here, possible is thought to a suitable policy to be adopted by the Government for protecting and encouraging manufacture, paving the way for investment of money by the public in its making. With a proper official policy taken in combination with the encouragement law for dye stuff making, which was put in force in October last, it is thought to be possible to see a larger portion than at present of the total demand in Japan covered by domestic products in a few years provided that the Japanese manufacturers strive more in production.

The authorities of the Department of Commerce and Industry are earnest in protecting the making of dyes in Japan, hoping to see the total output increased to about 20,000,000 yen in a few years, covering all kinds, except some special ones, which cannot be made here at an early date, and are valued at 2,000,000 or 3,000,000 yen a year.

Mr. Koyu Fujii, in his atelier.

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The Keimei-Kai and Its Work

THE Keimei-kai has for its objects the financial support of students, investigators and inventors in special lines and the study and investigation of selected subjects by proper authorities. It also holds lecture meetings and exhibitions for the accomplishment of the above objects and publishes the results.

Eight years have passed since the society was established. During that period, it has financially supported 57 subjects and has selected one subject for study and investigation. It has held 16 lecture meetings and 5 exhibitions, and has published about 20 books.

The cost of this work has been defrayed out of interest on its fund of 1,000,000 yen. This fund was contributed to the society by Mr. Tetsuma Akaboshi in respect of the will of his deceased father, Mr. Yanosuke Akaboshi, to use it in some useful work, entrusting it to Viscount Makino, the Keeper of the Privy Seal, and Baron S. Hirayama, Member of the Privy Council and President of the Japan Red Cross Society. They, upon consultation with Count Kabayama and Dr. K. Honda, organized the Keimei-kai.

The society has a board of directors and a board of councillors, the former of which is executive and the latter legislative. The former is headed by Baron Hirayama and has five other members, of whom the Managing Director is Mr S. Tsurumi, formerly Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, the four others being Mr. K. Komatsu, formerly Minister of Communications and Member of the House of Peers, Mr. K. Yamanouchi, formerly Minister of Railways and Member of the House of Peers, Mr. M. Kushida, President of the Mitsubishi Bank, and Mr. C. Sugiura, Vice-Minister of Education.

The Board of Councillors consists of prominent scholars and other men of note. They are Dr. I. Nitobe in political economy, Dr. M. Sawayanagi in literature, Mr. T. Okubo, Dr. S. Miyake in medical science, Dr. Y. Kozai in agriculture, Dr. J. Sakurai and Dr. H. Nagaoka in physical science, and Dr. T. Takamatsu and Viscount M. Okochi in engineering. These persons with the Chairman and six other members make 15. Viscount Makino acts as Adviser and partakes in important affairs of the society.

For the present, the society is financially supporting the subjects of culture-sciences and natural sciences in equal proportions.

In respect of languages and letters the society gave aid of about 8,000 yen to the completion and publication of a Spanish-Japanese dictionary, on the basis of a manuscript prepared by the Nichiboku Kyodo Kaisha in 1919. This manuscript was supplemented and corrected by Mr. I. Kanazawa, an authority on the Spanish language. A feature is that in the book, the Japanese translation of Spanish is given in Roman letters of the Japanese system, besides in ideographs and Japanese *kana*, valuable to those foreigners, who know how to speak Japanese, but not to write it. It is the first Spanish-Japanese dictionary in Japan. It has been so well received not only by students of the

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Spanish language in Japan, but by the Japanese in South America and the Chinese that the first edition of 2,000 copies was sold out soon after publication, and it is now in the second edition.

The society has given financial support of 7,000 yen to the editing and publication of a Japanese-Chinese dictionary. It was compiled by Mr. M. Hattori by hard work during five years for the use of Chinese students of the Japanese language. One of its features is that Japanese words in Chinese characters, Japanese idioms such as for exchange, registered letter, etc. are collected and translated into Chinese. It was completely edited in the summer of 1925.

The society has aided the revision and publication of a dictionary of the Aino language, compiled by Dr. John Batchelor, who has devoted his whole life to the study of the language and substantial aid given to his work has international significance.

The society has aided the study of Japanese *kana* as to changes in form and pronunciation by Dr. T. Oya, to the amount of about 15,000 yen in six years. The work recently was completed. It comprises eight volumes of material for research in *kana*, and its conclusion, with the appendix of a volume of a study of rhyming.

Concerning history, a book has been translated into English and published with the society's support, being a study of the *Kogo-Shui*, an authority on the old times of Japan. It was edited by Dr. G. Kato and Mr. H. Hoshino.

Another book is a history of modern political diplomacy, comprising lectures by Dr. K. Tsuboi at the request of the society; the first part of the book has been completed.

A translation of a history of Java, originally written by Meve. W. Fruin Mees, a Dutch authoress, the translator being Captain Matsuoka of the Imperial Japanese Navy, was published in 1922. It is the only history of Java in Japanese.

A book, a study of East India has been published with the society's support, its editor being Mr. K. Takakuwa.

Another book is on the Ainu by Mr. T. Kono, containing his personal investigations into their life, etc.

Regarding literature, the society has granted about 20,000 yen for the publication of the *Manyo-shu* and the completion of its standard edition by Dr. N. Sasaki; the old edition of 25 volumes was published in 1925. The completion of the standard edition is being hurried.

Another book is an annotation of the *Honcho-Bunsui*, a collection of the essence of Chinese writings, edited by a Japanese in old times. It is a study by Mr. S. Kakimura. The book has already been published and the author has been granted an Imperial prize by the Imperial Academy. The society appropriated 5,000 yen in aid of it.

Still another is a study of the *Sarashina-Nikki* by Mr. K. Tamai. It is the restoration of the old book to its original form by demonstrating and explaining its transpositions on the basis of Lord Sadaiye's copy.

A fourth is Dr. A. Shioya's study of Chinese drama, entitled the Gen-Kyoku-Sen.

The fifth is Mr. S. Araki's study of Persian literature.

Concerning religion and thought, the

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first is a study of Chinese old transcripts by Dr. Y. Yabuki. More than 6,000 important papers of Oriental religion and history, taken from ancient Chinese writings of over 1,000 years ago, which Mr. O. Stein an English explorer discovered in China and which are held in the British Museum, were photographed and studied. This study has revealed new facts about Buddhism. Dr. Yabuki was granted an Imperial prize by the Imperial Academy. The photographs were shown in an exhibition. The society granted about 10,000 yen to this work.

The second is a study of historical relics of Buddhism in China by Dr. D. Tokiwa, who travelled about places of historical interest connected with Buddhism in China and studied relics, which he collected in his travels. Books, photographs, etc., which he brought to Japan, were shown in an exhibition to the general public. The society granted 8,000 yen to this work.

The third is an investigation made by Dr. J. Takakusu concerning books and papers, held in old shrines and temples in Kyoto, Nara, Koya-san and other places of Japan. It has been nearly completed.

Besides, there are Dr. S. Ichimura's study of Confucianism and Chinese thought, and Mr. H. Ko-o's (President of the Social Educational Research Institute) study of thought among the Japanese rising generation.

The works concerning economics comprise Dr. M. Kimura's study of Chinese finance and Dr. T. Ono's publication of a series of books regarding Japanese farming economics.

In natural science, botany has a biological and spectrum chemical study of the colouring matter of plants by Dr. K. Shibata and Dr. Y. Shibata, brothers, published in over 10 books. The Keimei-kai granted over 10,000 yen to the work.

The second is Dr. S. Ikeno's study of the heredity of vegetables and the third is Dr. K. Okamura's study of seaweeds.

In zoology, the first is Dr. K. Kishigami's study of the bonito and tunny, the second is Mr. S. Tanaka's publication of illustrations of Japanese fishes, the third is Mr. Y. Okada's publication of illustrations of Japanese frogs, the fourth is Dr. K. Masui's study of the heredity of domestic animals and the fifth is Mr. R. Kuroda's study of the sense of hearing of reptiles.

In mineralogy, the first is Mr. S. Ichikawa's study of the structure of crystals. Mr. Ichikawa, who had no higher school education than the elementary course, is a hard working scholar. He was self-educated and passed the examination for middle-school teachers' certificate. He has been long teaching in middle and normal schools. He is versed in English and German. His essay on crystals has been published and admired in the American and German scientific world.

The second is Dr. S. Tokunaga's study of coal.

In physics, is Dr. S. Fujiwhara's study of vortices.

In chemistry, the first is Mr. P. P. von Weimarn, a Russian scholar's publication of results of a study of chromide chemistry. The book was printed in Lepzig, Germany, and dedicated to students of chemistry throughout the world.

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The second is Dr. T. Mashima's editing of a book of Japanese chemistry, the third is Dr. J. Yamakawa's study of protamin and the fourth is Miss C. Kuroda's study of crimson colouring matter.

In medicine, more important studies have been made than in other directions of science.

They are, first, Dr. K. Kiyono's study of the colouring of organism, of which already five voluminous books have been published. The Kemmei-kai granted 29,000 yen to the work.

The second is Dr. S. Yagi's study of home remedies, and the results have already been published regarding several items.

Besides there are Dr. K. Goto's study of nephritis, Dr. W. Ogata's study of diabetes, Dr. Z. Kawakami's study of elephantiasis and Dr. M. Tamura's study of sanitation of Japanese houses.

In engineering, are Dr. K. Furuichi's complete history of industry in the Meiji era, Dr. I. Oki's study of round valves, the late Dr. U. Torikata's book of electricity as applied to Japanese home life and Mr. N. Seki's study of harbour construction and drift sand. Of the above industrial history, the parts relating to shipbuilding and chemical industry have already been completed.

In fine arts and music, the first is Dr. S. Taki's replication of Chinese ancient pictures, the second is Dr. C. Ito's study of the fine arts of the Loochoo Islands, of which over 2,000 fine art objects were collected and shown to the general public, the third is Mr. H. Tanabe's study of Oriental music and the fourth Dr. K. Kanetsune's study of Japanese popular songs.

The Keimei-kai's aid, given or decided to be given to these works, has reached 370,000 yen, which 295,000 yen has already been appropriated.

In granting this aid, it is the policy of the Society to pay attention to all directions of society and to help any one of talent in the study or completion of valuable work, without distinction as to Government and private school cliques.

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Noted Entomologist Passes

MR. Yasushi Nawa, the noted Japanese entomologist who died recently was known all over the world for his knowledge of and priceless collection of insects, especially butterflies. His death at the age of 70, occurred on August 30, 1926, at his residence in Gifu.

Mr. Nawa has been known throughout Japan by the familiar name of "Konchu Hakushi" or "Insect Doctor." He was born in the fourth year of Ansei at Funaki-mura, Motosu-gun, Gifu Prefecture. Even in infancy he took great interest in insects; on seeing them he is said to have stopped crying when in a bad temper. In the 29th year of Meiji (1896) he resigned an instructorship at the Prefectural Agricultural School and established an entomological laboratory of his own in the City of Gifu.

When farmers suffered damage from insects which were prevalent all through the country in the 30th year of Meiji (1897), Mr. Nawa became widely known by travelling in every nook and corner for the purpose of propagating knowledge of defending the crops against the insects' damage.

Ever since then for fifty years he has devoted himself to researches in entomology and the collection of insects. Today his collection of insects numbers over 1,500,000 specimens, more than 10,200 different kinds. His institute, the Nawa Entomomological Laboratory, a foundational juridical person, is the most perfectly equipped establishment of the kind in Japan. Those whom he has trained to combat the damage done by obnoxious insects number over 16,500, all over the country.

His heir, Mr. Tadashi Nawa, also takes much interest in researches in biological and other phenomena of insects. He achieved the object of the method of transferring the powder of butterflies, for which he was granted a patent by the Japanese government. Mr. Nawa Jr. is now in charge of the Technological Department of the Nawa Entomological Laboratory, while Mr. Umekichi Nawa, husband of the late entomologist's daughter, has succeeded to the deceased's scientific labor.

Mr. Nawa started the publication of a periodical, "Konchu Sekai" (Insect World) in the 39th year of Meiji (1906), which is still continued as an authoritative magazine in relation to the study of insects, not merely in Japan, but in the world.

The late scholar also was celebrated for his researches as to termites and made tours throughout the country as an unofficial staff member of the Railway Department investigating the harm done by white ants to railway sleepers.

Mr. Nawa was granted the Blue Ribbon medal in May in the 34th year of Meiji (1901) for his meritorious services. Again in January in the 13th year of Taisho (1924) another decoration of the Blue Ribbon Medal was conferred upon him, and in February, the same year, Mr. Nawa received the Fifth Order of the Sacred Treasure.

He took no care about his attire and would frequent the Gifu Prefectural Government office in a very poor plain Japanese kimono. Not infrequently he

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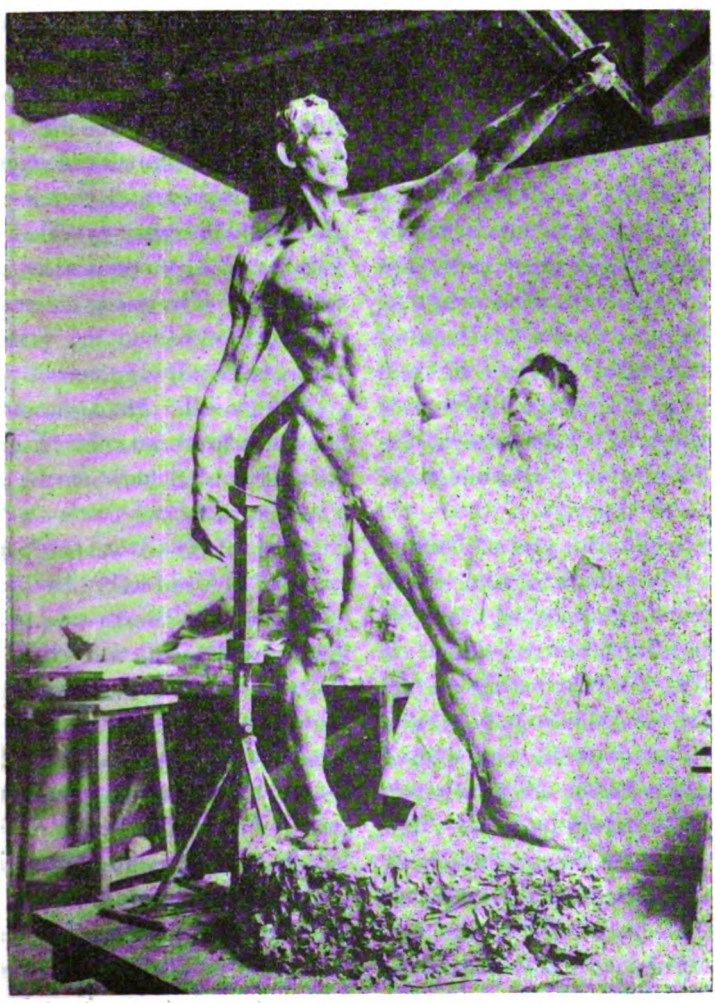
was taken for an old attendant in the service of the office. An interesting anecdote is that he would climb Mt. Kinkazan by night with a lantern, collecting insects, and country people who saw the light from afar thought that it was carried by a long-nosed goblin in the mountains. He was an ardent devotee to Avalokites'vara.

In making scientific tours hunting white ants he would call on various temples throughout Japan, and in the case of reparing buildings damaged by the insects he would be given the damaged timbers, which he carved into images of Kwannon. These figures number about a score, which are exhibited at his residence.

Mr. Nawa was particularly noted for his beautiful colored illustrations of insect life.

Among the memorial establishments left by the renowned scholar are the Entomological Museum and Entomological Memorial Hall.



Mr. Fumio Asakura, a noted modern sculptor of Japan, at work on his latest creation.

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A History of the Japanese Stage

(XII)

KODANJI Ichikawa IV (9th year of Bunka—2nd year of Keio) was one of the greatest actors in the latter part of the Yedo Era. He was a son of one of the attendants at the Ichimura-za Theatre in Yedo. In the 3rd year of Bunsei (1820) he was apprenticed to Danjuro Ichikawa VII. Later he went to Nagoya in company with his father and was apprenticed to Masuzo Ichikawa III and newly named Yonezo Ichikawa. Masuzo Ichikawa was also one of Danjuro's pupils.

Yonezo Ichikawa at first made his appearance on the stage of a certain child-play theater somewhere in Nagoya and achieved a high reputation when he made his début at a theatre in Kyoto at the ago of thirteen. When he was twenty-one years old, in the 3rd year of Tempo, he appeared on the stage of the Takeda-za Theatre in Osaka under the nom de guerre of Yonejuro.

In autumn in the 13th year of Tempo when he was playing an important rôle in the noted play, "Chushingura," he was behind time in making his appearance on the stage on the third day of the performance, owing to illness and on that account was beaten on the head with a slipper by Rikaku Arashi, the head actor, and was kicked down the stair-case. He was highly indignant and immediately resigned from the theatre on the pretext of being ill.

In the following year, the 14th year of Tempo, at the age of thirty-three, he joined the troupe of Danjuro VII in Osaka where the latter came, being deported from Yedo owing to his luxurious and dissipated life there. It was when he was thirty-four years old that he was renamed Kodanji.

In those days Danzo Ichikawa V disdained him to such an extent that he thought it a disgrace to ride in the same vehicle with Kodanji. In this manner the two actors were on bad terms and it was through the good offices of Danjuro, Kodanji's master, that the latter was at length able to take part in plays in Osaka. Kodanji, however, displayed rare skill on the stage in fighting scenes and soon enjoyed a high reputation among the spectators. On seeing his skilled acting, peeping from behind the scenes, Danzo Ichikawa highly appreciated it and was greatly moved. He declared "Kodanji must be a great actor in future." From then dissension between the two actors was mitigated.

When thirty-six years of age Kodanji returned to Yedo where he obtained great popularity. When he played the part of Goemon Ishikawa, the notorious robber, Kodanji's popularity reached such a point that through seventy-eight days of performance the play drew large houses and almost every day people were turned away.

"Sogo Sakura, the Righteous Hero" (Sakura Sogo Gimin-Den), a new play, when played by Kodanji, attracted a crowd of people to the theatre which overflowed every day for a hundred and four consecutive days. His popularity

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grew more and more. From spring in the 5th year of Ansei (1858) he was promoted to be head actor.

During those days Rikaku Arashi who had insulted him came to Yedo from Osaka. Kodanji invited him to his residence, telling him that he would like him to worship a Buddha's image in his own possession. On the arrival of the guest, the host showed him an old slipper he had kept as a treasure with great care, and said: "This is my amulet that has given me the impetus to get on in the world; it was because I was beaten by you with this slipper that I became a great actor. Now I'll present you with it. Keep it and make it your amulet if you please, and make yourself the head actor in Yedo." A comtemptuous smile crossed the donor's face. It is said that Rikaku was greatly ashamed and apologized, repenting deeply his past conduct.

In the 1st year of Genji (1864) Kodanji played the part of Gosho-no-Gorozo in "Tatoshu mo Gosho-zomé," in which he acted in a scene playing a flute after committing *harakiri*.

In the previous year (1863) Kodanji had proudly told Shinshichi Kawataké, later Mokuami Kawataké, a famous playwright: "Whatever difficult part it may be, I shall be able to play it successfully, if it is in a drama written by you." Shinshichi felt curiosity, on hearing this, and wrote plays with the motive of trying him. To the playwright's surprise, Kodanji's art was true to life and caused sensational applause among the audience. Shinshichi is said to have been struck with admiration at the skill of the actor.

In the 2nd year of Keio (1866) Kodanji acted as Ikakematsu at the Morita-za Theatre (part of this noted play was described in this magazine, two numbers back). During the performance the authorities ord red the theatre to the following effect: "Domestic plays have of late had the tendency of being too tru to human life and sentiment; sometimes they go so far as to more or less deprave good manners. Hereafter they shall be played as apart from true human nature as possible, avoiding too much emotion." Upon being advised of this by Shinshichi, the writer of the play, Kodanji turned pale and sighed: "Both you and I are no longer able to deal with domestic plays. That's too much, to order us to be as apart from true human sentiment as possible, isn't it?" He released himself from the stage on the pretention of sickness from the following month and died on May 8 at the age of fifty-five. In his diary Shinshichi wrote: "The very cause of Kodanji's sudden death was that order from the authorities."

Kodanji was of low stature and rather vulgar in appearance, while his voice was not clear. He had the weakness of making himself too little on the stage, laying too much stress on skill in art. However, he was light and nimble, most fit to play in rough-and-tumble scenes. His specialty was in cleverness at quick changes in ghost plays and in mid-air performances. Nevertheless, it would have been impossible for him to attain such a high position, if he had been skilful only in acrobatics. He had talent in fundamental stage craft as well as posture-dances. Whatever the part he played it dexterously and successfully true to life, whether the leading part, a female part, a villain's part; good or bad, old or young,

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man or woman, or what not. It was wonderful how versatile he was in his performances; for example, in the play, "Murai Choan," he played both the parts of Choan, a villain, and of Kyuhachi, a faithful servant, to the fullest satisfaction of the spectators.

That Kodanji accelerated the improvement of the acting of the so-called purely domestic plays which were further developed by Koshiro, Matsumoto V and Kikugoro Onoé III was one of the greatest services rendered by him to the Japanese stage.

Notwithstanding it was customary in the *Kabuki* play that all the roles exaggeratedly or fictitiously represented persons quite apart from real and true persons in their attire, character, dialogue and actions, the persons whose parts Kodanji used to play were all low class townsfolk, not peers in splendid costumes or great warriors. In other words, what he played was absolutely commonplace and democratic, instead of being superhuman or aristocratic; an expression of the real aspect of everyday life as it was the nucleus of his performance. No wonder many people critised him bitterly as a player of inartistic and vulgar character, this kind of criticism being made specially by conservative spectators who were used to grotesque old-fashioned plays. Despite this many other people who had got tired of the unrealistic plays handed down to them, enthusiastically welcomed and deeply appreciated Kodanji's realistic acting.

Not only in the presentation of character and attire but also in speech he struck out in a new line for himself. Poor as he was in voice, as has been said, his skill in intonation as well as the lengthening and shortening of speech struck with admiration even such a veteran actor as Nakazo Nakamura. It was, therefore, necessary in displaying new acting as he did to depend upon newly written prompt-books. It was for this reason that Kodanji in collaboration with Shinshichi Kawataké, the foremost playwright genius of the day, endeavoured to put new plays on the stage.

His popular plays, "Utsunomiya-Togé," "Nezumi Kozo," "Kozaru Shichinosuké," "Onibodzu Seikichi," "Three Kichizas," "Murai Choan" and others, above all "Sakura Sogo," were all written by Shinshichi (or Mokuami Kawataké) and vivified by Kodanji, being produced by him first. During the Meiji Era Kikugoro Onoé V succeeded him in acting such plays, and again in modern times he has found his successors in Kikugoro Onoé VI, Uzaemon, Ichimura XIII, etc.

Although it was due to his realistic acting that he preferred to play roles of lower class people, on one hand, it was because of his vulgar countenance, quite unsuitable for impersonating aristocrats, on the other. He was very quick-tempered and impetuous, which has left many an interesting anecdote.

As he was quite sociable he used to refrain from getting angry whenever he was tempted to do so. In its stead he would vent his anger on his family after returning home. His first wife quietly obeyed him in silence whenever he resorted to such irrational conduct, but his second wife was more skilful in controlling him. When he was displeased with something and returned home, he scattered the brazier ashes on the newly changed mats.

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His wife left him alone as he did this and the next day she threw against the stones in the garden the chrysanthemum vases, Kodanji had kept with much care as his treasures, one after another. All the vases were smashed to pieces. The wife said calmly: "That mischievous cat again did such a thing." Kodanji murmured: "My wife is far superior to me in this respect," and bitterly smiled. His conduct at home much improved after that.

He had a son of his own and an adopted son; the former was Kodanji Junior, who died and the latter was Sadanji Senior, true father of Sadanji Ichikawa Junior, now one of the most popular actors in Japan.

The actor who achieved popularity for the reason of his handsomeness and gracefulness, diametrically contrary to Kodanji, was Danjuro Ichikawa VIII, eldest son of Danjuro VII. Danjuro VIII was named Ebizo in the 8th year of Bunsei (1825) when he was only three years old, and made his début at the age of five. In the 3rd year of Tempo (1832) he succeeded to his father's name as Danjuro VIII. It was after he made his first appearance on the stage of the Kawarasaki-za Theatre that his name became gradually known among play-goers. He was a dutiful child to his father; when his father, Danjuro VII, was deported from Kedo, he prayed for his pardon by making daily worship at temples and shrines, while taking care of his mother and younger brothers. The City Magistrate who was moved by his conduct published his name so as to praise and encourage him. Indeed few actors were honoured with such official favour. From then he became more popular among the public.

In the 1st year of Ansei (1854) he accompanied his father to Osaka where he was to appear on the stage but committed suicide in a hotel. It was when he was thirty-two years of age. Opinions differ about the cause of his death. One of them is that his father and his favourite concubine determined to let him to go on the stage in Nagoya first and then in Osaka, but he had already made an arrangement that he would appear on the stage of the Ichimura-za in Yedo after returning there, so he was at a loss lest he should break his promise with the Yedo people. Another opinion is that he was pessimistic in sympathy with his mother who had lost the love of his father, because the latter was only making a pet of the concubine. However, a more principal cause was that he was morbidly nervous, so severely suffering from neurasthenia that he had once attempted suicide prior prior to this.

Not merely was he handsome but was particularly skilful in intonation, his acting being suitable both for old plays and domestic ones. It was, however, because of his high character, fine countenance and blue blood rather than his ability that he was able to outrival other old actors, his superiors, at such a young age as thirty. He was so full of charm that he made himself the centre of public popularity.

In this respect there are many anecdotes about Danjuro VIII. One day several bill-collectors forced themselves into his house and began to press his representative to let them see him, urging him to pay the money at once. As the time was

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drawing near to enter the green-room, he made his appearance before the collectors calmly and said: "Gentlemen, you are all welcome. But, as I have to go to the theatre immediately, I am very sorry to say good-bye to you. You can stay here as long as you like." All the collectors who had just a moment before been very quarrelsome changed their attitude all at once, and saluted him cordially, saying: "Please go to the theatre as you wish." And then looking at one another, they said in a low voice: "We are no match for him;" and went back in laughter.

In the spring performance at the Nakamura-za Danjuro VIII played the part of Sukeroku. After the scene of Sukeroku getting into a rain-water tank at the curtain-drop, one woman among the spectators requested that one bottleful of the water in the tank into which Sukeroku had just got be sold to her and woman after woman followed her example. Thus in a moment all the water was sold at one *bu* per bottle, and still there was much further demand. In this manner the people in charge of the performance made an unexpected large profit. It was because the patronesses of Danjuro intended to melt their toilet power in this water and put it on their faces!

At the funeral of Kikugoro Onoé III Danjuro was among those in the funeral procession. On his way home many women who were watching the procession besieged his sedan-chair; some of them clung to it; some others peeped into it from right and left, opening the windows. So pertinacious were they that it was difficult to clear the way. Valentino, the popular movie star, who recently died, can not have been more popular than Danjuro VIII.

The foremost actor playing female parts in those days in Yedo was Kikunojo Segawa V. He was excellent in his art and was unfortunate enough to die when only thirty-one years of age.

Next to Kikunojo mention should be made of the two sons of Hanshiro Iwai V: Hanshiro VI and Hanshiro VII, both of whom died when quite young, despite they were very popular and enjoyed a high reputation.

Kikugoro Onoé IV was born in Osaka, and in his boyhood was apprenticed to Karoku Nakamura and had the nom de guerre, Kacho. When he was twenty-four years old he was adopted by Kikugoro III, whese daughter he married, and renamed Kikué. In the 1st year of Ansei (1854) when he was forty-seven years of age he succeeded to his adoptive father's name, Kikugoro. He died at the age of fifty-three.

Although Kikugoro IV was not very fair of face and figure, he was graceful and stately. His specialty was playing a female part, not impersonating a young girl but suitable for the part of a woman in maturity. He preferred an old play to a domestic one, while showing his special repertoire in a ghost play succeeded to from his adoptive father. In the case of this ghost play he principally acted as a female.

Shuka Bando was early adopted by Mitsugoro Bando III. When he was twelve years old he was named Ozaburo, and it was after he reached the age of twenty that he became popular. His later name, Shuku, was nothing but taking after his adoptive father's nom de plume

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as an epigrammatic poet. He died at the age of forty-three. Shuka Bando was an actor solely playing the part of a female whenever he appeared on the stage. In spite of his face and figure not being so fair he excelled in a fine presence as well as a clear voice, looking very gay on the stage. His special role was playing the part of a bad woman, and he could cope with Danjuro VIII in popularity, acting the part of the latter's wife or factotum.

As he was quite careless about money he has left many interesting anecdotes in this respect. One day he was presented by one of his patrons, a great timber wholesaler at Fukagawa, Yedo, with a gift of one hundred *ryo*. The first thing to do was visiting the donor at Fukagawa to thank him heartily. When he saw his patron, there happened to be a buffoon-doctor beside the host. The doctor said to the actor: "Given such a large amount of money just before the year end you must be quite satisfied," "Mr. Doctor," replied he: "You are right, but I feel more gratified when I make such a gift than when I receive it." It is said that the host who heard what he said became more attached to him than ever.

Kikujiro Onoé was born in Osaka. He was apprenticed first to Nizaemon Kataoka, and came up to Yedo when he was twenty-two years old. In Yedo he made himself one of Kikugoro Onoé III's pupils, being named Kikujiro at first. In Yedo where he stayed for twenty-two years he took part in a triangular position in stage circles with Kikugoro IV and Shuka Bando. He enjoyed good health until the earlier part of Meiji but died in the 8th year of that era (1875) at the advanced age of sixty-two. He had no handsome countenance, his figure too being far from worth mentioning, but he was marvellously skilful in fundamental art and displayed his specialy in playing the part of a wife used to the ways of the world. In his later years he always acted as factotum to Kodanji Ichikawa, and, according to the opinions of the theatrical critics of that day, he excelled even Kodanji in some respects.

Monnosuke Ichikawa was from Yedo. At the beginning he was apprenticed to Kikunojo Segawa V, but went under the wing of Danjuro Ichikawa VII as one of his pupils, assuming the nom de guerre, Shinsha, after returning from Osaka where he studied the art until he was twenty-five years old. It was when he reached the age of fifty that he was renamed Monnosuke. He died when he was fifty-eight years old.

He was very fair of face and figure, while having a high toned voice, but roughness of acting was his drawback. So he was criticised as lacking the expression of mild women's sentiment. For this reason he was more suitable for playing the part of a woman in maturity or an old woman than that of a young girl. In his later years he acted additionally as a leading part player.

He had a very good memory, and learned easily varied examples shown by his superior senior actors. Therefore such a great actor as Danjuro Ichikawa IX of the Meiji Era learned a lot of important things from Monnosuke and admired his acting. Even Danzo Ichikawa, one of the foremost actors in the Meiji Era, so renowned for his fastidiousness, praised the talent of Monno-

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suke. Danzo confessed that in his youth he was often found fault with by Monnosuke and instructed by him. All this shows how gifted with genius Monnosuke Ichikawa was.

The Japanese stage at the end of the Meiji Era was adorned by these actors.

(To Be Continued)

Mr. Ichiro Yuasa, preparing for the autumn exhibition.

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The Divine Favour

THERE is a tradition handed down in the Province of Tango, that once in ancient times, there was a silk merchant called Sumaya Chubei in the town of Miyazu, in that province.

Gen, a silk reeling hand in the employ of the merchant, lived simply with her mother in Ine Village, which was near the town.

The mother of Gen was bereaved of her husband while her daughter was still an infant. She did not marry again. Taking the infant on her back, she was employed in dragging fishing nets on the seacoast and got her livelihood thereby.

One day, a poor Buddhist priest visited the town. He was in the fifties. He was as poor as a beggar and asked for food from door to door.

The poor widow took pity on him. He asked her to give him a night's lodging, and she granted it. But he did not sleep in the room, but on the ground in front of the house, where straw mats were spread to serve as bedding. The ground was very narrow and it was impossible to go in and out of the house except by stepping over the priest asleep.

Some days passed after he first came to lodge at the house. He soon became familliar with the family and slept late in the morning.

The village people began to look on the relations between the widow and the priest with suspicion. But the widow was unconcerned and she treated the priest with sympathy and kindness.

A number of months passed. One day, the priest told the widow: "I cannot forget your kindness to provide me with lodging and to treat me with grace ever since I came here. I wish I could give you something in return, but as I am an unworldy priest, I have nothing to offer you."

He continued: "This house looks to me so gloomy as to presage an unlucky event. Have you not something to tell me about it?"

The widow replied: "It is just what I have been concerned about. This village is projected into the sea and is like a peninsula as you know, and a monster often comes over from Nakanoshima (an islet) lying away out to sea, and bewitches and harasses the villagers. My husband died

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young on account of it."

The priest nodded and said: "It is just the reason why your house looks dismal. I feel it my duty to relieve you of a calamity that is coming upon you, in return for your kindness. I yearn for my home and intend leaving here to go again on my long return journey very soon. So, I'll drive out the evil spirit and prevent a calamity that would befall your family this very night."

He then lighted a fire and poured water upon himself. He made incantations and wrote these incantations on a talisman, which he threw into the fire and burnt.

The heavens suddenly became overcast and a rain storm occurred in the offing. It spread rapidly in the direction of the village, and Ieno-yama (a mountain) shook severely. This was followed by terrible peals of thunder and flashes of lightning. A great storm came then and it proceeded towards the island in the offing.

The widow was much frightened and huddled in a corner, holding Gen, the infant, in her arms.

After a little while, the rain stopped and it cleared up, the stars twinkling as brightly as early in the evening.

The priest said: "Please be at ease now, *Okamisan!* You will have no more monsters' visit for a long time to come. I regret, however, that another devil has been let escape, and twenty years afterwards, another calamity will threaten your family. You should then put this in the fire and burn it by which you will be able to exterminate the bad spirits forever and your family will be happy and prosperous."

He handed to the widow an iron talisman with red letters on it. Then he left the house, without telling his name and address. He never visited the place again.

The above event occurred, when Gen was still an infant.

She was now twenty-four years old. She was pretty and good natured. She was even too pretty to be long left in a country village.

All the young men in or out of her village, who once looked at her, loved her, and many of them went as far as to ask her mother to give her in marriage. But the mother would not consent to the proposals, in consideration of the calamity that might befall her family in the twentieth year, which was a matter weighing too heavily on her mind to let her think about her daughter's marriage.

In the meantime, the girl had entered the service of Sumaya Chusuke, the silk merchant, and lived simply with her mother.

One day, the family received an unlooked-for call from a man about fifty years old, calling himself a subject of a certain noble in the capital. He told them that he had bathed in the famous Kinosaki Hot Springs in the Province of Tajima, and then he had come to the Province of Tango over the sea, where he viewed the celebrated Amano-Hashidate, and that while travelling along the seacoast, he had heard of Gen, and having taken a peep at her face, he was charmed with her and longed to take her as his wife to the capital. He visited the family to get its consent.

The man had a few servants with him. He ordered them to wall the house with tapestry. They brought curious and valuable furniture with which they decorated

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the rooms.

They lodged in the house. They got their food and drink from outside, and had revels late into the night.

They pressed sake on the widow. Then the leader tried to prevail upon her to give her daughter to him in marriage. He talked of himself as a subject of a very powerful noble in the capital, as wealthy and as unmarried. He called the girl to the room and behaved improperly towards her, without shame of his ugly face and old age.

The widow held her daughter in high estimation and did not think it worth while to consult about marriage with the man, who was too much older than her daughter. She also feared what the village youths, who were enamoured of her daughter, would think if she consented to the marriage offer.

The man did his best to humour her and told what he had learned of her past life, as if he had known everything about her and her family. After that, he inquired with unconcern: "I have heard of a talisman, handed to you by a Buddhist priest, who visited you many years ago. Do you still have it? If you have, please let me see it."

The widow, who was very careful, had prepared a substitute talisman of metal with red letters, intending to use it when necessity arose. As her visitor insisted on seeing the talisman, she showed the substitute, with feigned reluctance. As soon as the man received it, his attitude underwent a complete change, and he became insolent, contrary to his previous compromising attitude. He asked the widow imperatively to give him her daughter in marriage. But she gave no ear to it.

The man got angry and ordered his servants to drag out the girl, saying: "This widow presumes upon my kindness and does not listen to my words. But I insist on marrying the girl."

The man looked rather weird to the widow, his attitude being too serious and dreadful to be taken as a drunken bluff.

At first, she had considered the matter simply as a question of the man's love for her daughter, but she now began to look upon it more gravely as foreshadowing her much feared calamity foretold by the priest twenty years ago.

No sooner did she come to this conclusion than she took out the genuine talisman which she had always had about her for the past twenty years, from her pocket, and put it in the fire under the tea-kettle.

Suddenly a furious wind began to blow. It soon developed into a severe thunderstorm, and a thunder-bolt fell in the front yard of the house.

Soon the rain stopped and it dawned. The family looked out into the yard and were surprised to find there the man and his servants lying dead. They were carefully examined, and it was found that they were not human beings, but old monkeys dressed like men.

The widow and her daughter trembled at the recollection of their dreadful experience of the past night. At the same time, they were struck by the wonderful prophecy of the Buddhist priest and the value of the talisman. They conceived great respect for the priest.

While the man and his servants were spectres, the curios and furniture brought by them to the house were all of high

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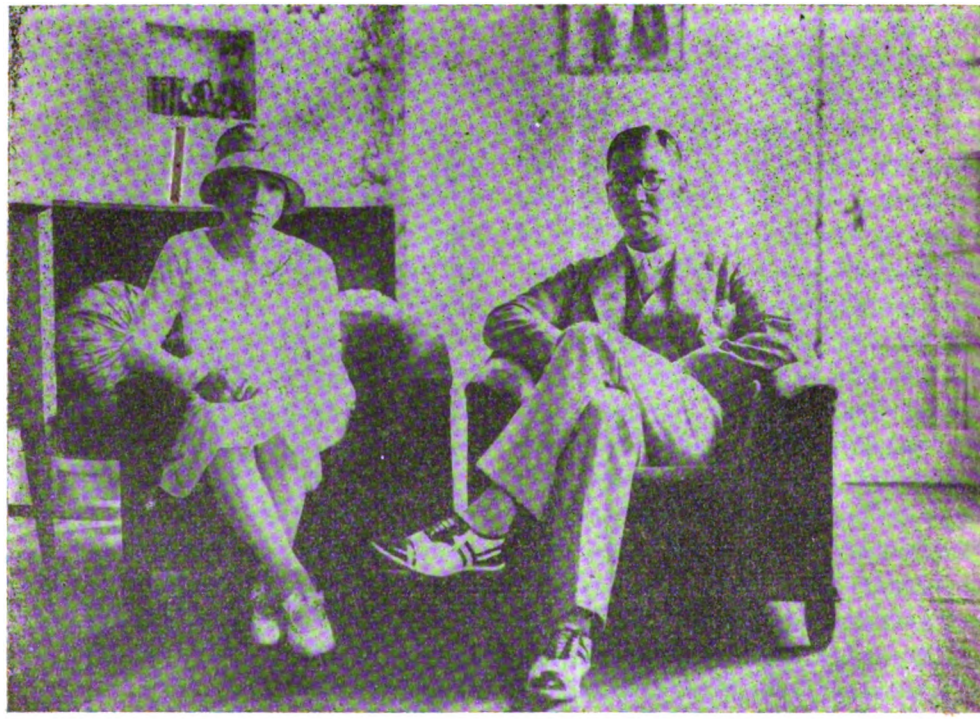
value, some being worth over 1,000 yen apiece. The matter was reported to the police, and the widow was allowed to take possession of these valuable things.

The poor family was enriched by it. A promising village youth was adopted into it and was married to Gen, the pretty girl. After that the family was very happy. In this too, the priest's prediction proved correct.

So runs the tradition of Tango.



Mr. Jirohachi Satsuma, wealthy cotton goods merchant, who recently went to Paris for the purpose of erecting there a home for Japanese students in France. It will cost 300,000 yen. He was accompanied by his wife, who is at the left in the photograph. Mr. Satsuma is 27 years old.

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In the World of Drama

By Percy Whiteing

QUITE a wide variety of plays greeted the patrons of the Imperial Theater during the summer months.

Rather conspicuous was the August program presented by the famous "Sawa-Sho" troupe,—that is, Shojiro Sawada and his company of accomplished actors and actresses. Their specialty is melodrama of the better kind, which strongly appeals to the younger generation. A Sawa-Sho program is always sure to draw full houses. There usually is a good deal of sword-play, and the August bill at the Teigeki was no exception.

An entirely different type—or rather types of drama was shown at the Imperial in September, by the theater's actresses—Ritsu-ko Mori, Nami-ko Hatsuse, Kikue Kawamura, Fusa-ko Fujima, and others, supported by the Teigeki star Koshiro Matsumoto and a number of the younger but talented actors of that theater.

In the latter month's program, perhaps the most interesting, and most provocative, play was one of the modern—ultra-modern, in fact—school, the title given it in English being "Only Once."

It is a story concerning that ever fruitful topic, capital and labor. Also there is a marriage involved, but if there is any love interest it does not appear on the stage, and as far as can be seen it is purely an arrangement of social convenience, as is so common in Japan.

Koshiro, as president of an industrial company, presents a man who has fine ideals but is hampered in carrying them out, by those around him.

Not the least of these latter obstructionists in his fiancee (Ritsu-ko), who finally breaks her engagement with him, when Shoji, the president, ostensibly refuses to abandon his determination to discharge a foreman, who has committed outrages in the factory, but is admired by the workmen on account of his record in the World War.

In this attitude she displays a tendency all too common in real life of people, often of the feminine sex, to interfere obstinately in affairs about which they know nothing. She also demonstrates either that she has no real affection for Shoji; or else perhaps she really loves him but carefully hides it and sacrifices it on the strength of her half-baked ideas about her duty, in accordance with old-fashioned ideals in Japan as to women's duties. If this latter is the case it is indeed incongruous in the midst of a situation otherwise so completely of the modern world.

Whichever it may be, the playwright has depicted Taye-ko's personality, so frequent in the society of today, with much skill.

Another typical character is Shoji's secretary—full of impudence and conceit. Despite the fact that he knows the president to be a man of wisdom and uprightness, he is guilty of insubordination at a critical moment. This type of young "squirt" exists, also, all too plentifully in the business world today, and Mr. Masuda is to be complimented on his skilful port-

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rayal of this kind of young upstart.

The president, in the denouement of the play, promotes this young man to be manager of the company, and it would seem that his judgment for once was at fault, as a sound spanking would seem much more fitting treatment.

Nami-ko, undoubtedly the most talented tragedienne on the stage in Japan, has not much scope for her art in this play. However she does the best possible with her role as the hysterical wife of Kojima, the rambunctious foreman.

The latter is, no doubt, a good man at bottom, and had made a misstep in his unruly conduct. With such a man, Shoji, as president, shows wisdom and finesse in removing him from his place as foreman, and giving him a post of more responsibility as secretary.

The title of the play, "Only Once" comes into play at the very end, when Shoji agrees to reinstate Taye-ko and to many her, contrary to his principle of never revoking a decision once taken.

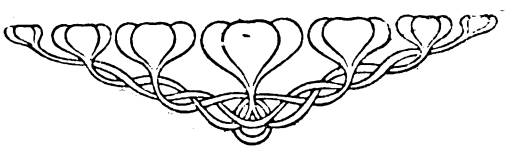
Another personality in the drama is Shoichi, elder brother of Shoji, and an official of the company. His fiery attitude in support of the workmen is as unusual as it is interesting, though in a way stupid in not wholeheartealy supporting his brother from the first.

The historical drama, "Chozen the Enchantress," by Daigo Ikeda, deals with one of the periods of wars in ancient China. It is a spectacle of great beauty and stagecraft. Kikue is an alluring enchantress indeed, well set off against the valiant general of Koshiro.

Small hand drums of several types have a prominent place in Japanese music, and no orchestra is complete without them. Also old fashioned Japanese, deep in the esoterics of music, find pleasure in playing on these drums alone. Some such drums are handed down from olden times as heirlooms. Such a hand drum is the center of interest in a play by Baisetsu Isaka. It is described as being made of the skins of foxes, and this draws in a traditional fancy.

Two foxes, long since dead, take haman form, one of them as the famous Shizuka Gozen, former consort of the romantic Minamoto leader Yoshitsune. They appear before Yoshitsune, while he is engaged with another lady, Kyo-no-Kimi. The latter are playing the hand-drum. The foxes, attracted there, show great emotion at the sight of the drum, and are persuaded to disclose their true character. They plead that the drum was made, ages before, of the skins of their parents. Yoshitsune gives them the instrument, and in return they save him from an ambuscade.

The Sawada program has been commented on already in a previous issue of the Japan Magazine.



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